

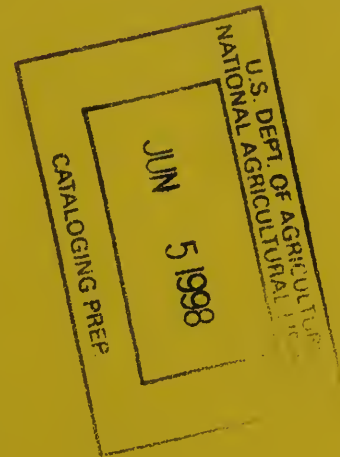
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*Series Special Reports
Foreign Economic Growth
Public Administration
Foreign Economic Growth
general*

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION
IN
AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT



REPORT ON A SPECIAL COURSE

Sponsored by

United States Department of Agriculture

in Cooperation with

Agency for International Development

and

University of Wisconsin

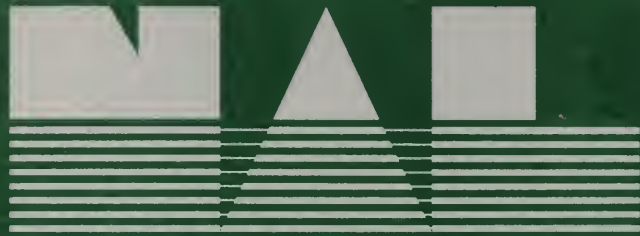
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June 18 - July 20, 1962

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United States Department of Agriculture
Foreign Agricultural Service
Washington 25, D. C.

United States
Department of
Agriculture



National Agricultural Library



FOREWORD

This Program Report is a summary of the 1962 short course "Public Administration in Agricultural Development," Training Course #11. It is compiled largely from notes taken by the participants during the course. Thus the summary statements under the different program segments reflect the group's concept of the subject.

The report is intended primarily for the future reference of the participants to refresh their recollection of the subject matter covered. It may also be useful in:

- (a) Reporting and extending what they learned to higher authorities and to colleagues
- (b) Holding workshops, conferences, or short courses in their home countries; and
- (c) Instituting changes in work under the control of the participants.

Due to space limitations, the report contains only an outline or list of the teaching materials used. Supplementary materials containing lecture outlines, case studies, problem-solving exercises and other subject matter material, together with an outline of how to develop and use appropriate materials, would be needed by those contemplating a program built upon this experience.

The program and itinerary were developed cooperatively by:

Mr. I. K. Harrison, International Training Division, A.I.D.

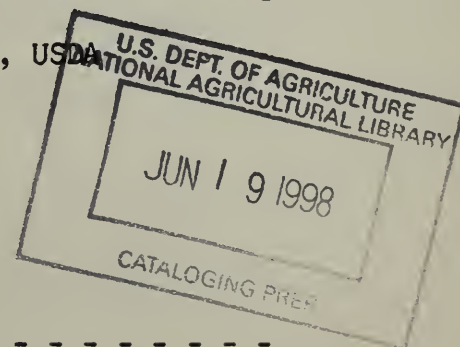
Dr. J. W. Ryan, Assistant Director, Bureau of Government -
University of Wisconsin

Mr. Phillip F. Aylesworth, Federal Extension Service, USDA

Dr. John B. Holden, Director, Graduate School, USDA

Mr. Cannon C. Hearne, Director, Foreign Training Division, Foreign
Agricultural Service, USDA

Mr. Ross J. Silkett, Foreign Agricultural Service, USDA



Pictured on the opposite page are members of the 1962 Short Course in Public Administration in Agricultural Development with Phillip H. Aylesworth of USDA's Federal Extension Service (second from left).

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Organization of Course

This special short course, Public Administration in Agricultural Development, was developed to help agricultural administrators of foreign governments increase their capacities for efficient administration.

In the course of providing an opportunity to individuals of other countries to study American agriculture, it became apparent that the limiting factors in their agricultural development included administrative problems as well as technical ones. This special program was thus organized to provide training in public administration for certain officials.

The visiting officials selected for participation were ones with substantial administrative responsibilities in their governments. The broad objective of this program was to develop in participants an appreciation of the value and importance of public administration and how this function is applied in agricultural development. The focus was on the job of the administrator, demands and requirements, the administrator's role in policy formation and decision-making, and skills and ways to improve administrative performance.

The course was organized in two phases in order to give the participants both an understanding of the concepts and theory underlying public administration and the application of these concepts to an operating program. The first phase on the basic nature of public administration was carried out at the University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin. The second phase on the use of administrative tools was conducted at the U.S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.

Important keys to achieving the objectives were:

- (a) That the program content be designed to meet the needs of top-level foreign administrators with broad responsibilities for planning, organizing, staffing, and directing the work of others.
- (b) That the course create an atmosphere conducive to maximum involvement and interchange of experiences by the participants.
- (c) That the setting help participants discover the store of administrative know-how each possesses.
- (d) That effective education and teaching methods be utilized.
- (e) That the participants be motivated to make fruitful use of the lessons learned as adapted to their situation.

The focus of the course was on a process of involvement to help the person better understand what he already knows about administration, to share with others and to firm up concepts applicable to his situation. Considerable emphasis was placed on understanding the environment or setting in applying the principles of administration.

"We need to make enough allowance for the different environment and kind of people.....A program method of one country cannot be copied for another country; it must be adapted."

The elements of administration considered were compressed into four areas: planning, organizing, staffing, and operating (directing, controlling, reporting). These areas were studied in depth.

A combination of methods was used for each area studied: (a) reading, (b) presentation (lectures), (c) discussion, (d) case study, (e) workshop, (f) seminar, (g) consultation.

A schedule of assigned reading from the literature on public administration was carried out. The major reference used was "Readings in Management" by Richards and Nielander.

Problem solving groups were also established so that the participants could practice the decision-making process. These sessions moved administration into the participants' situation and added reality in the learning process.

The seminars on comparative administrative environment constituted a most effective teaching and learning process. Likewise the seminars on follow-up helped to "nail down" what was learned and constituted a device for effective transmittal of learning into action.

Realizing that note-taking and reporting are a part of the learning process, the participants took turns as recorders to report the highlights of each session to the group on the following day and to prepare notes for the summary report.

PARTICIPANTS

<u>Name</u>	<u>Country</u>	<u>Position</u>
Turhan A. Atay	Turkey	Wheat Breeder Ministry of Agriculture
Assael Ben-David	Israel	Deputy Director General Ministry of Agriculture
Tomas F. Bermillo	Philippines	Assistant District Forester Bureau of Forestry
Paulo Campos Bricio	Brazil	Chief of Studies and Planning Service, Banco Nacional de Credito Cooperative
**Sockarno Darmosoekarto	Indonesia	Assistant in the Ministry of Agriculture
Tahir B. El-Awad	Sudan	Inspector of Agriculture Kadulgi Region
George A. Ige	Nigeria	Principal Agricultural Officer, Extension Serv- ice Division, Ministry of Agriculture, West Nigeria
*Mir Mohammad Issmail	Afghanistan	Assistant in Prime Minister's Office
Adem Karaelmas	Turkey	Chief Advisor to "Topraksu" Organization of Ministry of Agriculture
Hassan Mgalla	Kenya/East Africa	District Officer, Kilifi, East Province
Mohammad E. Nuristani	Afghanistan	Special Assistant for the Minister of Agriculture
Johan J. Tomaso	Indonesia	Head of Agricultural Extension Service, Nusatenggara Region
Dr. Yien-Si Tsiang	Rep. of China	Commissioner, Sino- American Joint Commission on Rural Reconstruction (JCRR)
Alberto Valdes (Loma)	Bolivia	National Associate Director Credito Agricola Supervisado

* Wisconsin only

** USDA only

S T A F F

Program Leaders

<u>Name</u>	<u>Position</u>	<u>Program Session</u>
Phillip F. Aylesworth Technical Leader	Federal Extension Service U.S. Department of Agriculture	1, 10, 14, 15, 20 (Wis), 4, 9, 15, 16, 17, 19 (USDA)
John W. Ryan Program Director (Wisc).	Bureau of Government University of Wisconsin	1, 4, 7, 8, 10, 14, 15, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28 (Wis).
David A. Gugin Assistant to Program Director (Wisc).	Political Science Extension University of Wisconsin	10, 14, 15, 20, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 28
Ross J. Silkett Program Specialist	Foreign Agricultural Service U.S. Department of Agriculture	
	<u>University of Wisconsin</u>	
L. H. Adolfson	Dean, Extension Division	3
Charles Anderson	Assistant Professor Political Science	11
Robert C. Clark	Director, National Agriculture Extension Center	16
James Donoghue	Professor Political Science Political Science Extension	2
Winston Hughes	Director of Staff Development State Department of Public Welfare (Wis)	12
K. H. Parsons	Professor, Agricultural Economics	5, 6
Edward Schten	Assistant Professor Political Science	9
Fred Von der Mehden	Assistant Professor Political Science	13
	<u>U. S. Department of Agriculture</u>	
Martin Abrahamson	Farmer Cooperative Service	17, 18 (Wis)

Carl B. Barnes	Director, Office of Personnel	7
Mary L. Collings	Division of Extension Research and Training - Federal Extension Service	8
Loretta W. Cowden	Division of Home Economics Programs Federal Extension Service	5, 6, 11, 12
Lloyd H. Davis	Deputy Administrator Federal Extension Service	9
Lyman Noordhoff	Division of Information Programs Federal Extension Service	14
Ward Porter	Division of Extension Research and Training Federal Extension Service	5. 6. 11, 12
Gordon D. Fox	Forest Service	10
Jon F. Greeneisen	Foreign Information Training Office of Information	13
Mrs. Ann B. Irvine	Foreign Training Division Foreign Agricultural Service	19
Wayne Rasmussen	Agricultural History Branch Economic Research Service	2
Joseph M. Robertson	Administrative Assistant Secretary Office of the Secretary	1
Afif I. Tannous	Near East & Africa Area Officer Foreign Agricultural Service	1
William R. Van Dersal	Assistant Administrator for Management Soil Conservation Service	3

P R O G R A M

Concepts of Public Administration

University of Wisconsin
June 13 - July 6, 1962

<u>Session</u>	<u>Subject</u>	<u>Leader</u>
1.	Orientation a. Introduction b. Objectives, methods, study c. Why study public administration	P. F. Aylesworth and J. W. Ryan
2.	Public Administration in Agricultural Development	J. R. Donoghue
3.	The Job of the Administrator	L. H. Adolfson
4.	Evaluation -- Skills of Administration	J. W. Ryan
5.	Planning and Programming	K. H. Parsons
6.	Analysis of Programming a. Cai San Resettlement Project Case Study	K. H. Parsons
7.	Organization -- Theory and Practice	J. W. Ryan
8.	Organization Case Studies a. The Battle of Blue Earth County b. New York City Health Centers	J. W. Ryan
9.	Personnel Administration	Edward Schten
10.	Consultation	Staff
11.	Management Controls	Charles Anderson
12.	Reorganization	Winton Hughes
13.	Comparative Administrative Environment	Fred Von der Mehden
14.	Seminar	Staff
15.	Seminar	Staff
16.	Administrative Leadership	Robert C. Clark

<u>Session</u>	<u>Subject</u>	<u>Leader</u>
17.	Cooperatives -- Organization and Management	Martin A. Abrahamson
18.	Cooperatives -- Operational Aspects	Martin A. Abrahamson
19.	Introduction to the Decision-Making Process	J. W. Ryan
20.	Consultation	Staff
21.	Review	J. W. Ryan
22.	Problem Solving	J. W. Ryan & Dave Gugin
23.	Problem Solving	J. W. Ryan & Dave Gugin
24.	Problem Solving	J. W. Ryan & Dave Gugin
25.	Problem Solving	J. W. Ryan & Dave Gugin
26.	Problem Solving	J. W. Ryan & Dave Gugin
27.	Evaluation	J. W. Ryan
28.	Consultation	Staff

Application of Public Administration

U. S. Department of Agriculture
July 9-20, 1962

<u>Session</u>	<u>Subject</u>	<u>Leader</u>
1.	Management in the USDA	J. M. Robertson
	Application of Public Administration Consistent with Culture	Afif Tannous
2.	Growth of the USDA Through the Years	Wayne Rasmussen
3.	The Successful Supervisor	William Van Dersal
4.	Country Life Association Meeting	Staff
5.	Planning and Program Development	Ward Porter & Loretta Cowden

<u>Session</u>	<u>Subject</u>	<u>Leader</u>
6.	Planning Workshops	Ward Porter & Loretta Cowden
7.	Staff Development	Carl B. Barnes
8.	Training Workshop	Mary L. Collings
9.	Organization of the USDA Federal-States Relations	Phillip F. Aylesworth Lloyd H. Davis
10.	Decentralizing a Program	Gordon Fox
11.	Social Action	Ward Porter & Loretta Cowden
12.	Process of Change	Ward Porter & Loretta Cowden
13.	Public Relations	Jon F. Greeneisen
14.	Information Services Workshop	Lyman Noordhoff
15.	Follow-up (Adaptation to Individual Situations)	Staff
16.	Seminar	Staff
17.	Seminar	Staff
18.	Evaluation	Mrs. Ann B. Irvine
19.	Commencement	Staff

Public Administration in Agricultural Development

Dr. James R. Donoghue

I. What is administration?

In its simplest form administration is the work activity of any particular organization -- the work flow or process which a group does.

Public administration refers generally to those activities which take place under the executive branch -- national, state, local. These relate to broad areas and broad groups of people. However, some functions, public in character, are performed by private individuals or enterprise. In every society and country there is a similar body of tasks which must be accomplished.

Administration is both a science and an art. Out of the scientific approach comes a concept of principles to bring to bear. But these are just guidelines to be used together with individual or group set of values.

II. Why study Public Administration?

We study administration to be able to do something about allocation of resources, to determine priority of projects, to provide a justifiable economy that allocates resources in the best interests of society, and to get the maximum output out of given input.

III. Goals and objectives of public administration.

1. Substantive -- these vary from field to field and come out of decisions based on values.
2. Procedural -- common processes, methods, how to do it. These have common elements of administration which are susceptible to the same kind of methods.

IV. The setting of administration.

The situation in which the administrator operates affects the way in which he handles his job.

1. This is a time of enormous increase in complexity as compared with the past. This grows out of:
 - (a) More people in the world -- more being born and living longer.
 - (b) Economic and technological growth -- people's capacity and desire to consume is increasing, and capacity to produce has also expanded.
 - (c) Continuing political crisis -- large-scale change with a sense of urgency is occurring.
2. There has been a major shift in goals which governments are called upon to perform. The objectives have changed from the negative sort which restrict behavior to the position of adding to the welfare of the citizens.
3. There is increased concern for the common man -- the mass of the population.

Notes by Tomas F. Bermillo

The Job of the Administrator

Dr. L. H. Adolfson

The administrator's job is largely one of dealing with people -- those presently on the staff and a search for competent people to hire. He is faced with people in the right jobs and in the wrong jobs, competent and incompetent people, those he likes and those he doesn't like, those he can trust and those he cannot trust. Basically the creative administrator relies on releasing the energy of able people to get the work of the organization performed.

The work of the administrator involves the following:

1. Create an environment -- a favorable situation -- to enable people to perform with maximum effectiveness and to achieve the overall goals of the organization.
2. Maintain relationships with key officials -- governor, legislature, administration officials, department heads.
3. Carry out the planning process, including budget making -- consistent with the purpose of the organization as reflected in law and tradition.
4. See that people are in the right jobs.

Requirements of the administrator:

1. He must have a great technical knowledge in his substantive field, but the higher he rises in the administrative structure, the less technical knowledge is called for.
2. The administrator must be inventive, resourceful, innovative, devoted, faithful, hard working, and maintain a high standard of personal conduct.
3. The measure of an administrator is his ability to increase his own capacity and to select, train and develop persons.

Tasks of the administrator:

1. Striving to get funds and control of spending.
2. Searching for staff -- for competence, ability.
3. Settling problems and briefing higher officials on potential problems.
4. Maintaining liaison or relationships with other officials both within and outside the organization.
5. Keeping communications effective with staff and higher officials.

Notes by Tomas F. Bermillo

Planning and Programming

K. H. Parsons

Planning and programming is greatly different in developing countries than in established countries, as in creating a going concern and an operating one after it has been established. Special emphasis was given to policy and planning in developing countries.

1. Adopting an agricultural policy -- (Agricultural policy derives from several circumstances)
 - (a) The general political philosophy of the country
 - (b) The special conditions of the country and the nature and character of the people
 - (c) Major goals toward which agriculture should be directed in order to take an adequate place in the national development
2. Areas of administration in planning
 - (a) Land ownership -- the land problem is one of the major policy issues. This involves conversion from a subsistence economy to a market of exchange economy. Marketing rules defining terms upon which buyers and sellers must deal with each other, and taxation.
 - (b) Public services. As a country develops and moves into a market economy it brings increased demands for public services. Many public services in all countries are provided by the government itself, or sponsored in a large part by the government. There are roads, railroads, harbor facilities, airports, telephones, telegraphs, education, recreation, health, and research.
 - (c) Publicly-sponsored services. Credit is very important in agriculture to help farmers to struggle with time -- to get over a season in order to survive. The nature of credit changes as the country moves from a subsistence economy into market development. This brings in a credit and debt situation. The problem is how to use credit to lead people into a productive economy and not let credit be a device to keep people down in debt servitude. Cooperatives have been formed as a means to provide better credit and market alternatives.
3. Analysis of planning. Case study: "Administrative Planning for the Cai San Resettlement Project" -- from the Vietnamese Case Book.

Notes by Assall Ben-David
Tahir B. El-Awad

Organizing

John W. Ryan

Organization is more than structure -- it includes maintenance and operation. One can assume the administrator will carry out the purposes of the agency. Therefore the organization must show the objectives, resources, layout, and relative allocation.

1. Definition of organizations

- (a) Formal organization is a system of consciously-coordinated activities of two or more persons
- (b) The theory of organization has to do with the structure of coordination imposed on the work assignments of an agency
- (c) Organization is the systematic bringing together of inter-dependent parts to form a uniform whole through which authority, coordination, and control may be exercised to achieve a given purpose

2. Principles of organization (from Fayol)

- (a) Specialization -- division of labor
- (b) Departmentalization -- group-like activities in single unit
- (c) Authority and responsibility -- power to act and necessity to account for action
- (d) Discipline -- obligation of each member to the organization
- (e) Unity of command -- an individual should receive orders from one person
- (f) Hierarchy or line of command -- authority proceeds from pinnacle vertically through all layers. Decisions should be made as close as possible where decision takes effect.
- (g) Remuneration -- equal pay for equal work
- (h) Centralization -- information and knowledge converges at the top
- (i) Delegation -- authority must be delegated; responsibility cannot be, but can be shared
- (j) Subordination -- the individual interests must conform to the common goal.

- (k) Stability -- security of public opinion
- (l) Sense of union -- morale, team spirit
- 3. How organization is determined
 - (a) Purpose or objective -- easier to see relevance of work to purpose
 - (b) Process -- focuses on activity
 - (c) Area
 - (d) Clientele
- 4. Types of organization
 - (a) Line -- related to job of agency
 - (b) Staff -- advisory
 - (c) Auxiliary -- facilitates work of each unit of the agency
- 5. Is the organization effective? Must say "yes" to:
 - (a) Clarity of goals within organization
 - (b) Delegation of authority
 - (c) Periodic reappraisal
 - (d) Adjustment of formal or informal organization

Notes by Mir-Mohammad Issmail
Adem Karaelmas

Organization of Case Studies

- 1. The Battle of Blue Earth County
- 2. New York City Health Center

Re-organization

Wint Hughes

The principles of organization were applied to reorganization.

Personnel Administration

Edward Schten

A major responsibility of the administrator is to get competent people in the organization and to direct their work to ensure that the tasks are carried out in the best possible manner.

The principles of personnel administration are closely related to the situation in the particular country.

Many of the responsibilities of the administrator are involved with human relations or personnel management -- those activities having to do with recruiting and developing a competent staff. Included are: Directing, coordinating, training, evaluating, reporting, protecting, improving work methods, understanding overall purpose.

1. Principles of supervision

- (a) Know employee (appraise)
- (b) Define objectives
- (c) Show task to be done
- (d) Let him practice -- do job
- (e) Reward good results

2. Recruitment

There are no principles for staffing an organization -- rather this depends on the situation in the country.

3. Training and development. Emphasis was placed on training new people. This includes:

- (a) Understanding goals of the agency
- (b) Improving the work of the organization

4. Discussion: What is the basis for pay increases? How to carry out personnel evaluation (job rating).

Notes by George A. Ige
Mohammad E. Nuristani

Management Controls

Charles W. Anderson

Viewed creatively, management controls are the tools of the administrator to get things done through an organization. They are the instruments he uses to marshall men and materials to carry out decisions made in fulfillment of the function of an organization.

Characteristics of Controls

Controls may be "positive" (designed to encourage certain types of behavior) or "negative" (designed to discourage certain types of behavior). At the margin, a positive control is to be preferred to a negative one, or a negative control defined in a positive manner to encourage a different kind of behavior.

The imaginative administrator will ask himself why people behave in organized ways in his society, and how these techniques of social control that are imbedded in the culture may be adapted to making his organization work. Further, if there are controls vital to the effectiveness of his organization that are not culturally reinforced, how can he go about making them effective in his organization?

Generally, the techniques of social control available in all societies may be classified as follows:

Cultural: values, beliefs, mores, customs, attitudes

Political: authority, power, law consensus, persuasion

Economic: allocation of resources, either through authoritative policy or the operation of a market mechanism.

Cultural: Each organization develops its own "culture," a set of commonly accepted attitudes, customs, and habits toward work and the organization. What are the weapons of the administrator in developing an organization which has a culture propitious to good administration?

- (a) Personnel selection and incentives.
- (b) Leadership -- the leader sets attitudes.
- (c) Training
- (d) Organization, definition of function and standards

Political: The sanctions of authority within an organization are many and varied. Of course, the ultimate sanction is removal from the organization, but prestige, position, and money are all sanctions that can be manipulated as means of control.

Positive Controls: (1) Prestige and recognition, (2) promotion
(3) economic incentives.

Negative Controls: (1) informal criticism, (2) recorded criticism,
(3) reduction of salary, (4) suspension, (5) dismissal.

Such sanctions are not to be used whimsically or arbitrarily, but under clearly defined, specific and well-known circumstances as means of enforcing compliance with the techniques used to mobilize and structure action within the organization. These techniques are specified in the following ways:
(a) law, (b) regulations, (c) procedures and systems, (d) organization.

Every bad situation does not call for a universal rule. They should be sufficiently flexible not to stifle creative action. The good administrator must know how to bend, or possibly break, his own rules, without destroying the meaning of regulation and respect for them.

Economic: How do you insure that the available material resources will be employed in the most effective way to carrying out the purposes of the agency?

Budgeting is central to the management process, a means whereby authority defines the allocation of scarce resources.

As a management control, budgeting enables administrator to: (a) delimit human activity by specifying amount and purpose of funds available, (b) promote economy, (c) compel planning, (d) enforce reporting, (e) enforce policy decisions concerning alternative courses of action.

Conclusions: Management controls may usefully be viewed as a set of tools which may be combined in a strategy for meeting a specific problem of decision implementation rather than as the components of a rigid organizational structure. Every organization contains a battery of existing controls which the administrator can learn to adapt to his purposes. This means that the administrator must learn how to prevent irrelevant controls from hampering him, how to adapt existing controls to his purposes, and how to devise new ones to meet a specific situation without permitting them to harden into timeless and frustrating memorials to problems long past. The objective should be to achieve a parsimonious, deft, and balanced mixture which will permit optimum realization of the objectives of the specific policy without jeopardizing the total function of the organization.

Notes by Alberto Valdes
Hassan Mgalla

The Environment of Administration

Fred Van der Mehden

A favorable environment is a prerequisite to the achievement of good administration. There is a lack of such a favorable environment in most of the newly emergent and rapidly developing countries because of the following reasons:

1. Political instability. In most of the developing countries, public administration has been greatly influenced by political instability.
 - a. There has been lack of a strong central government even before a colonial power came in, and local autonomy resulting from the use of indirect rule by colonial administration has impeded the development and acceptance of a national power.
 - b. Religious and ethnic groups continue to play important roles in public administration.
 - c. Civil servants who were trained during colonial administration have been kept out of politics, while politicians who had no or inadequate training have occupied top positions.

2. Colonial paternalism

In some countries there has been no sufficient training for men at middle and upper echelons during the colonial days because the colonial powers, especially the Dutch, took a paternalistic view toward the colonies. As a result, the politicians of these countries at present are not cognizant of problems, disregard administrative systems, and have no interest in public relations.

3. Nationalism

Top administrators have attained their positions, not as good administrators, but many by gaining power as a demagogue by articulating the desires of the people.

4. Other unfavorable environmental factors are:

- a. Emphasis on quantity rather than quality.
- b. Close relationship between political parties and the civil service.
- c. Trained personnel have left civil service for political jobs, thus creating the problem of lack of leadership in technical fields.
- d. Lack of communications and understanding between central administrators and local groups.

e. Corruption, bribery, and nepotism are major problems.

5. Conclusion

The prevailing administrative environment in any of the developing countries can be improved only by changing or improving the leadership and by changing the attitudes of the government officials, as well as the people through education.

In short, democracy with good leadership and political stability are the goals of the administrative environment.

Notes by Yien-Si Tsiang

Seminar on Comparative Administrative Environment

The purposes of this seminar are: (1) to involve the participants themselves, (2) to give other participants and the staff a better understanding of the various administrative situations, and (3) to uncover some of the more pertinent administrative problems experienced by each of the participants and to discuss possible solutions.

Presentations covered the following points:

1. General overview of administrative responsibilities
 - a. Job description -- duties and responsibilities
 - b. Place in the overall organization of the ministry and the government
2. Administrative problems involved
 - a. Administrative characteristics which are reducing the efficiency of the operation of the agency
 - b. What administrative changes are suggested?

Problems of Administrators 1/

1. Poor communications between headquarters staff and field -- no one asks what field thinks.
2. Inadequate time for planning due to correspondence load and travel distances.
3. Inadequacy of reliable working data.
4. Plurality of command.
5. Dual responsibility for extension education and regulatory inspection work.
6. Attempts to introduce technology without a background of understanding of the people.
7. Lack of educational drive -- emphasis is just on "how to do."
8. Absence of courses on supervision and administration.
9. Low output by sub-zone assistants -- some work unreliable.
10. Lack of contact with departments of the university and with research.
11. Politicians and administrative layers clear appointments and promotions.

1/ This list illustrates the type of problems that were brought out in the comparative administrative environment seminars. They are listed here for ready reference to the overall subject of "Why Study Public Administration."

Administrative Leadership

Robert C. Clark

The lecturer presented the following points for discussion: What do we mean by administrative leadership? What are the component parts of leadership? What are the sources of authority of administrative leaders? What are the primary functions of leadership? What are leadership principles? What are essential leadership traits? What are the types of leadership?

1. Definition of administrative leadership

Leadership is the activity of influencing people to cooperate in some goal which they come to find desirable. (Ordway Tead: The Art of Leadership)

2. Component parts of leadership

- a. Purposes, goals, and common cause. A person evolved as a leader has a clear conception of purposes, goals, and common cause, which are individual or group centered.
- b. Leader. A person recognized by the group as leader whose will, feeling, and insight direct and control others in the pursuit of a cause.
- c. Follower. A person cannot be an efficient leader if he, under certain circumstances, cannot be a follower.
- d. Situation. The type of leadership exercised by a person and the degree of leadership offered by him vary with different situations.
- e. Social process. It is a process or method by which a person can stimulate, direct, and guide others.

3. Sources of authority of administrative leaders

- a. Knowledge or know-how
- b. Situation (ability to adapt himself to the group situation)
- c. Position
- d. Laws - institutional or organizational policies

4. Leadership principles

Leadership principles are fundamental rules or guidelines which are applied by one person to control or guide the actions of others. They are:

- a. To know your profession and to be able to teach it to others.
- b. To know yourself and seek self-improvement.
- c. To know your staff and look out for their welfare.
- d. To maintain a fair, firm, and friendly relationship with your staff.
- e. To keep your staff informed.
- f. To insure that each task is analyzed, organized, assigned, and supervised.
- g. To train your staff as a team.
- h. To make sound and timely decisions.
- i. To take responsibilities and develop a sense of responsibility.
- j. To set an example.

5. Essential leadership traits

- a. A sense of purpose and direction
- b. Enthusiasm
- c. Friendliness and affection
- d. Integrity
- e. Technical mastery
- f. Intelligence
- g. Teaching skill
- h. Faith
- i. Physical and nervous energy

6. Types of leadership

Autocratic	Bureaucratic	Democratic	Laissez-Faire
0 --Degree of freedom available to each member in the organization--100			

Notes by Yien-Si Tsiang

Cooperatives

Martin A. Abrahamsen

1. Growth and development of cooperatives in the U. S.

Before 1862 people worked together spontaneously, but there were few cooperatives. As agriculture became more commercial, cooperatives were promoted because of economic conditions. The period from 1912 to date can be characterized as one of consolidation, cooperation, and competition for cooperatives.

The State land-grant colleges, the Federal government, and the cooperatives themselves furthered the cooperative movement. For example, a policy statement of the USDA in 1912 called for encouragement and sound development of cooperatives. This policy was inoperative from 1953 through 1960, but is again in effect with a change in administration.

2. What is a cooperative

Cooperative is an economic tool -- it can be used by farmers to increase their income.

Basic principles of cooperatives:

- (a) Service at cost
- (b) Limited returns on capital
- (c) Democratic control

3. Types of cooperatives

- (a) Producer - Marketing, farm supply, service, electric
- (b) Consumer -- stores, housing, credit, insurance, health, industrial
- (c) Legal -- incorporated and unincorporated
- (d) Area served -- local, regional, national
- (e) Structure -- federated, centralized

4. Management of cooperatives

- (a) Member -- for a successful cooperative the members must know about its activities, have something to say about broad policy, and have some money in it

(b) Board of directors -- responsible for policy and decisions

(c) Manager -- to execute the decisions

5. Case illustrations of cooperatives

These cases brought out factors of success and failure. Included are: Finance, membership, research to meet needs in a changing situation, providing goods and services, being ahead of competitors. The cases given showed that the following are reasons for successful cooperatives: Full-time management, personal contact with members, aggressiveness, flexible program, research of the needs.**

6. Discussion points:

(a) What conditions are favorable to development of cooperatives?

(b) As conditions change, what adaptations are necessary?

(c) In order for cooperatives to succeed, what kinds of characteristics or qualities are necessary?

Notes by Paulo Campos Bricio

**The failures were due to the poor quality of the product, being improperly financed, poor management, lack of communication with the members.

The Decision-Making Process

Dr. John W. Ryan

Decision making is the major activity of an administrator. The two processes best known in decision making are:

1. The intellectual -- the decision maker uses his reason, chooses particular objectives, and makes commitments;
2. The institutional -- the combination of efforts of many individuals.

The bases on which decisions are made are: (1) chance, (2) instinct, (3) precedent, (4) non-rational grounds, (5) rational grounds (related to the goals of the organization).

There are two kinds of decisions. One is the fact decision. This is based on tests and experiences in an organization. The second is the value decision. This is influenced largely by ethical considerations (what ought to be).

The administrator does his job when (1) he makes his decision based upon rational grounds, consistent with the value system; (2) communicates both the value (objective) and the decision to the subordinates; (3) establishes a favorable climate for action (balance between group purpose and individual motive).

The goal of the administrator is to see that decisions are rational. (Rational decision -- that which is correctly calculated to achieve a goal within socially acceptable behavior).

But rationality is difficult to achieve. Barriers to rationality are:

1. Subjective (values, comfort preferences)
2. "Sunk costs" (investment)
3. Unanticipated consequences

Rationality can be increased by the following:

1. Decision maker should be broadly aware of his society.
2. Development of a process or pattern which assures accumulation of the facts.
3. Organizational cooperation so that each unit contributes in a complementary way, expert knowledge is brought to bear, and there is shared responsibility.
4. Efficient decision makers -- selection of staff with a consciousness of the consequence of rational choices, sensitive to the factors of society, emotionally stable and have good judgment.

The process of decision making may be summarized in steps such as these:

1. Define the problem.
2. Relate to the objectives of the organization.
3. Assemble facts.
4. Weigh facts and identify alternatives.
5. Make choice and take action.
6. Evaluate.

The human pattern of approach to decision making:

1. State the problem in simple terms.
2. Decide who can help solve the problem.
3. Who is key man?
4. What do you want the key man to do?
5. What further information do you need?
6. How convince the key man to do what you want him to do?

Problem Solving Sessions

Four basic administrative problem areas were selected and simulated decision-making situations created in each of them. The problem areas were: organization, personnel selection, policy making, and planning.

Management in the U. S. Department of Agriculture

J. M. Robertson

"Government was created to help people do things collectively better than they can individually." -- Abraham Lincoln

A. Everything that is done in the Department of Agriculture is done "by people, with people."

1. Ways to get cooperation of people:
 - a. Let them feel they are participating in the project.
 - b. People like to be recognized for the job they do.
 - c. People need and want a feeling of security.
2. Select people carefully:
 - a. Select on the basis of ability to do the job.
 - b. Discriminate only against inefficiency.
 - c. Look for good quality of men who can do the job. (This is called "improving the breed" in the Department.)
3. Assign responsibility:
 - a. Give people a job to do and get out of the way.

B. Two things are important in a large organization:

1. Decisiveness
 - a. Action taken quickly and to the point.
(If a decision turns out later to be wrong, correct it at once. People will not mind mistakes -- in fact prefer this to inaction and doodling.)
2. Responsibility to the people --
Be interested in people -- a service concept. Bear in mind that public officials are working for the people. Give people the right answers, decisive answers, and do it quickly.

Avoid the situation as illustrated by the Chinese proverb --
"Big noise on the stairs but no one coming down."

Notes by Tomas F. Bermillo

Application of Public Administration Consistent with Culture

Afif Tannous

All societies are changing societies though some may change more significantly than others. Public administration methods and procedures, therefore, should be adjusted to the peculiarities of the differing culture and societies. Normally a system of public administration in a country is the product of its culture -- way of life -- and functions best in terms of that culture. A good example of this is the agricultural extension work which is organized with emphasis on universal education for farmers, the voluntary cooperation of farmers, and local participation in program determination and execution.

A. Critical Problems in Rapidly Developing Countries

The major factors responsible for such critical situations are: (1) the great emphasis applied to the physical aspects of development such as dams, roads, machinery, etc; (2) the little attention given institutional aspects of development, such as human relations, the core of which is effective public administration; (3) the old systems of public administration which are not adequate to meet the rapid development resulting from imported technology; (4) the new systems of public administration which fail to meet the demands of the situation because they have been borrowed wholesale from abroad and imposed by authorities from above.

B. Illustrations of Basic Problem

Problems of administration created in situations of rapid development can be illustrated in any number of ways: (1) the implementation of a merit system for the recruitment of personnel might clash with personal loyalties to friends and family; (2) the concept of "delegation of responsibility" to personnel on various levels may conflict with traditional patterns of centralized authority in government; (3) participation by citizens in program planning and implementation could be obstructed by a traditional gap separating the farmers from the authorities; (4) the assignment of qualified personnel to government positions might be obstructed by low pay, which is, in turn, the result of an inadequate system of taxation; (5) the spirit of nationalism desiring rapid economic development is impatient with the slow process of institutional growth within the governmental organization.

C. Conclusion

It must be remembered, then, that the prevailing system of public administration in a country cannot be dismissed, ignored, or changed abruptly. Change must come slowly and on a long-term basis. Opening the doors for the people to participate effectively in national plans and programs is perhaps the most basic requirement for bringing about deep-rooted change.

The general recognition of needs provides a broad and solid base, and the dynamic stimulation that is essential for building a stable and progressive system. Training must be done in the administrative field to keep pace with the training of personnel in purely technical fields. The organization of programs should be given equal attention, effort and priority with the physical aspect.

Notes by Tomas F. Bermillo

The Growth of the USDA Through The Years

Wayne D. Rasmussen

Since this is the centennial year of the establishment of the U. S. Department of Agriculture one session was devoted to the development of the Department and the State Land-Grant Colleges and how this has affected the nation.

The Department of Agriculture was created by an Act of the Congress which was approved by President Lincoln, May 15, 1862. That same year President Lincoln signed the Homestead Act, which made provision for giving freehold farms of 160 acres each, from the public domain, to citizens who would make homes and till the soil for five years. He also signed the Land-Grant College Act which endowed the colleges with 11,000,000 acres of public land.

The Organization Act of 1862 stated the purpose of the Department by saying: "There shall be at the seat of Government a Department of Agriculture, the general design and duties of which shall be to acquire and diffuse among the people of the United States useful information on subjects connected with agriculture, in most general and comprehensive sense of that word."

As our nation has developed and demands for agricultural services increased, the Department of Agriculture also grew. Whenever it expanded functions were added to it by Congress as the result of demands for services by the people. The early work of the Department was largely centered on research. The collection of statistics was also one of the Department's earliest activities. The passage of a number of regulatory acts increased the work of the Department as these laws were referred to it for enforcement.

Other major legislative actions included passage of the Hatch Agricultural Experiment Stations Act in 1887 authorizing the establishment of stations to conduct experiments relating to agricultural subjects; the Agricultural Extension or Smith-Lever Act in 1914 providing for cooperative work with land-grant colleges in giving instruction and practical demonstrations in agriculture and home economics; the Federal Farm Loan Act in 1916 to provide farmers with a source of federally supervised cooperative credit.

In 1933 a number of other major activities were added to the responsibilities of the Department. These have been called "action agencies" to distinguish them from the research and educational agencies.

Notes by Paulo Campos Bricio

The Role of the Supervisor

W. R. Van Dersal

The relationship between a supervisor and his subordinates will determine how well a job will be done. A good supervisor is one who is able to get people associated with him to do an effective job. The measure of his success is to be found not only in how well his people do their jobs, but also in how high their morale is while they do it.

I. Principles of supervision have been developed from the common ideas of supervisors who have been designated as "good" by their chiefs.

A. People must understand what is expected of them.

1. The individual must know what his job is:

- a. his responsibilities and authorities
- b. where his work fits in with the work of others in the office
- c. the importance of his work

2. The individual must know the organization:

- a. what it does
- b. how it operates
- c. who is his supervisor
- d. how the quality and quantity of his work will be measured
- e. what his line of promotion or career opportunity is
- f. what benefits there are

B. People must have guidance in doing their work.

1. They must be kept informed both on people and policy.

2. They must be given a chance to develop techniques of how to do the job.

3. They may have to be helped through a period of personality improvement. This involves:

- a. recognition by the man that he really has a fault
- b. prevention of too great discouragement
- c. development of a real desire to overcome the fault
- d. encouragement and praise of any progress

C. Good work should always be recognized.

1. Common methods of recognition are:

- a. tell him
 - b. write him
 - c. promote him
 - d. give a bonus
 - e. award a certificate of merit
 - f. provide medals or awards
- D. Poor work should be constructively criticized.
- 1. The level of work probably will increase if a person is criticized constructively and not harshly bawled out.
- E. People should have the opportunity to show that they can accept greater responsibilities.
- 1. The supervisor has to make these opportunities.
 - 2. Each person deserves the opportunity.
- F. People should be encouraged to improve themselves.
- G. People should work in a safe and healthful environment.
- II. Being a good supervisor requires constant attention to almost everything a subordinate does and personal effort to be a leader people will like and respect.
- A. Attitude -- interest in people, patience, sympathy and tolerance, loyalty, tact, dependability, cooperation, etc.
 - B. Traits -- sense of humor, enthusiasm, imagination, common sense, integrity.
 - C. Abilities -- teaching, training, communicating, organizing, planning.

An exercise to underscore the strong and weak points of supervisors or administrators was carried out. This was done through discussion in response to the question, "What are the characteristics of a 'lousy' supervisor--what don't you like?"

Notes by Ben-David

Planning and Program Development

Ward Porter and Loretta Cowden

Sound Program Development:

1. Is a teaching and learning process
(Leads people to see beyond present felt needs to basic problems, is developmental, should develop leadership.)
2. Is a continuous process which provides for continuity as well as flexibility (Each teaching and learning experience enables people to see more clearly what they need and what their true objectives are. It becomes a guide which leads to the next steps for the months and years ahead.)
3. Is planned with and not for the people concerned
(Those who plan together work together and develop enthusiasm for a program.)
4. Is based on and grows out of recognized problems and felt needs of local people
(Starts where the people are with recognized customs and cultural patterns.)
5. Is based on an analysis of facts: local, state, national, and international
(Identified limitations of means or resources, implies a look ahead to changes and trends.)
6. Includes cooperatively determined objectives which offer satisfactions
(Clearly defined objectives which are within the reach of people, build interest and motivate action.)
7. Includes a definite plan of work
(This is the answer to who will be involved, what, where, when and how each objective will be accomplished.)
8. Provides for evaluation to show results in terms of changes in the action of people
(Determines the degree to which the objective for the problems are accomplished, helps to give guidance for the program ahead, and serves as a check on teaching procedures.)
9. Is a coordinating process
(It unifies the efforts of the family, all interested leaders, groups, and agencies and considers the use of resources.)
10. Provides for balance with recognized emphasis
(Covers the majority of important interests with some timely problems chosen for emphasis to avoid scattered effort.)

Notes by George Ige

Staff Development

Carl B. Barnes

In staff development the problem is to identify promotable men quickly and surely. A staff development program must be adapted to recognize and develop strong characteristics and correct weaknesses. There is no single pattern of characteristics that applies to all leaders. These vary by circumstances -- different countries, fields and levels.

1. Leadership is a function rather than a set of characteristics. It is not a property of the individual but a relationship among certain variables. These must be known in order to know how to develop staff. Some of these are:
 - a. Characteristics of leader
 - b. Attitudes, needs, and other personal characteristics of followers
 - c. Characteristics of the organization -- purpose, structure, nature of tasks to be performed
 - d. Social, economic and political environment
2. The staff development program task is to:
 - a. Provide varied (heterogeneous) supply of human resources
 - b. Involve many people rather than a select few
 - c. Follow a goal of development of unique potentialities of each rather than common characteristics of all
 - d. Assume that these varied resources are actually considered when openings occur
 - e. Recognize that every person is not a potential member of top management
3. Characteristics of leader (top executive)
 - a. Focuses on results rather than work
 - b. Plans and knows what planning is
 - c. Concentrates on a few major tasks and objectives
 - d. Constantly improves
 - e. Builds on strength
4. How develop leaders:
 - a. Recruit people with potential (identify the promotable man)
 - b. Select on the basis of performance (give tests; look at experience)
 - c. Counsel and coach
 - d. Provide formalized training
 - e. Encourage self development
 - f. Give developmental assignments (delegate authority, detail to another job)
 - g. Provide proper agency climate

The basic talent is to understand the unique characteristics of each person.

Notes by Tahir B. El-Awad

Training Workshop

Mary Louise Collings

The first responsibility is to determine training needs. The training plan is then developed to fill in the gap between what the employee must know and the job to be done.

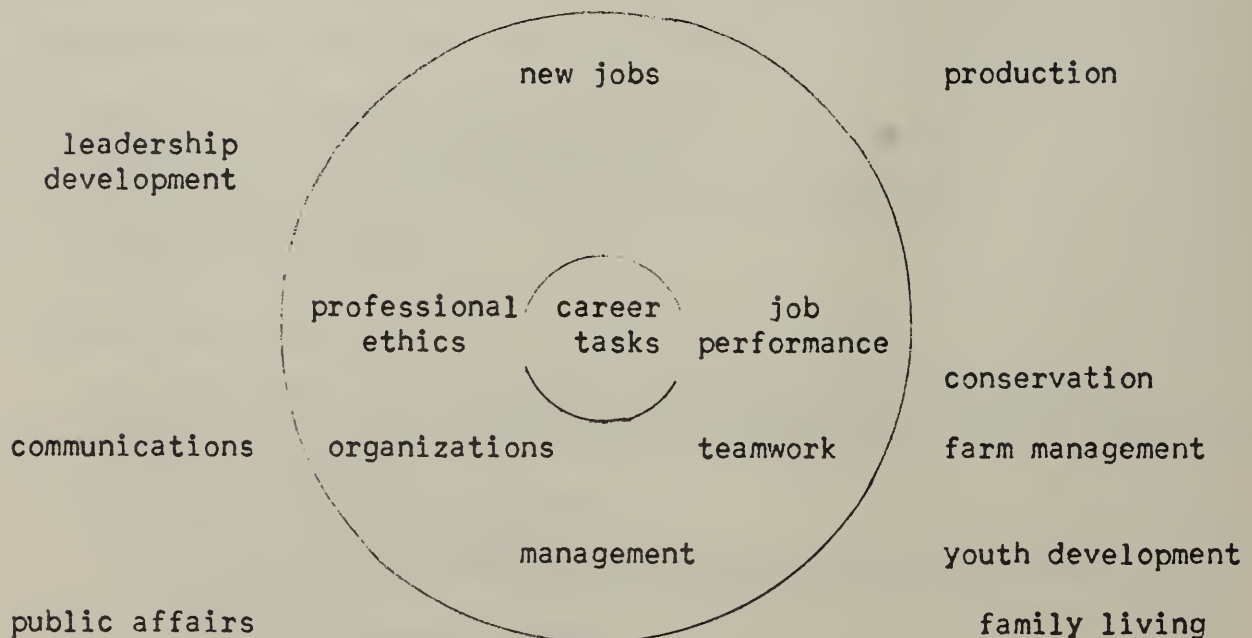
1. Look at the job from the standpoint of the following:

- (a) Philosophy and goals
- (b) Organization
- (c) Procedure
- (d) Technical subjects
- (e) Administration
- (f) Public relations
- (g) Motivation to study

2. Consideration in developing a training program:

- (a) Scope (who is to be trained; what is content area; and at what career stages will it be carried out).
- (b) Organization and administration (need; objectives; content; who is responsible; when, how is it to be done).
- (c) Training process (climate, sequence, practice, follow-up).
- (d) Evaluation.

3. Example of an Extension Service Training Program:



Organization of the U. S. Department of Agriculture

Phillip F. Aylesworth

The organization of the USDA is decentralized with only about 15 percent of the personnel located in Washington, D. C., and the balance in the field in about 4,000 locations. The functions of the Department may be grouped as follows:

Research--Research is conducted by several agencies in the Department. This includes: physical and biological, farm management, soil, water and timber use and conservation, marketing, human nutrition and home economics, economic research and statistical analysis. The research is carried on in close cooperation with State experiment stations and other public and private agencies.

Regulatory--Regulatory activities are directed toward insect and plant disease control and the prevention of the introduction and spread of livestock diseases and their eradication. Inspection of meat for wholesomeness is included.

Education and Information--The responsibility of bringing understanding of the results of research and the possibilities of programs administered by the Department falls in this area.

Marketing--Marketing and distribution functions such as market news, grading, inspection and maintenance of standards are included.

Conservation--The work involves a national program of cost-sharing with farmers for soil and water conservation practices, technical assistance in soil and water conservation and conservation of forests and related range and water resources.

Stabilization--This involves price support operations and crop insurance programs.

Credit--These programs supplement private sources of credit where necessary.

Notes by Aden Karaelmas

Federal-States Relations

Lloyd H. Davis

The Cooperative Extension Service is an excellent example of decentralized organization and operation.

Education has been a primary function of the U. S. Department of Agriculture since its beginning in 1862. As the original legislation spelled out, the Department was established to "acquire and diffuse among the people of the United States useful information on subjects connected with agriculture." Its founders saw clearly the need for both research to "acquire" useful information and education to "diffuse" this knowledge among the people. The Cooperative Extension Service gives the Department of Agriculture and the land-grant colleges an educational arm reaching into practically every county.

As its name implies, the Cooperative Extension Service is a partnership. Three levels of government -- Federal, State, and local -- share in financing and in developing programs with local people to meet their needs. County extension agents work with local people in identifying and solving problems. They encourage and help families put scientific information to work and organize their own resources to improve their businesses, homes and communities.

The State partner, the land-grant college, is responsible for actually conducting the work. Through its State Extension Service, each college employs a staff of county farm and home agents. These agents, joint employees of the college and USDA, literally stretch the boundaries of the campus and resources of the Department to the far corners of every State.

Extension teaches people how to make their own decisions -- it does not order them to make changes. As a pioneer director of extension said many years ago, "It is the function of the Extension Service to teach people to determine accurately their own problems, to help them acquire knowledge (useful in solving these problems), and to inspire them into action."

Notes by Aden Karaelmas

Decentralizing a Program

Gordon Fox

The Forestry Service is an example of an agency within the USDA which by the nature of the service it renders is forced to have a decentralized organization. It is, therefore, a good example also of how a decentralized program can work in public administration.

1. The three main functions of the national forest program are the basis of organization.
 - a. The Service manages 181 million acres of national forests for multiple use.
 - b. It conducts research in forest, range, and watershed management and in forest products utilization. These research programs support the other programs engaged in by the Service.
 - c. It cooperates with the states and private land owners in the development and wise use of forest lands.
2. Decentralization is to the lowest point that specialization can be afforded.
 - a. The type of decision that is to be made.
 - b. The timeliness of the decision.
 - c. The specific factors involved in the situation demanding a decision.
3. Delegation of authority also limited, mostly by the type of decision to be made.
 - a. A program that affects other areas.
 - b. A decision not frequently made.
 - c. Where new policy is involved.
 - d. Where relationship with other organizations are involved.
4. Tools in the decentralization process include:
 - a. Workload analysis giving data on standards and performance.
 - b. An inspection process, reviewing the work done.
 - c. A manual and handbook system including the objectives and policies of the agency and the broad procedures and standards to be followed.
 - d. The right of a man in the field to make a mistake. It is not always enough to have a manual; a training program can usefully supplement the manual and handbook system.

Notes by Sockarno

Social Action

Ward Porter and Loretta Cowden

Group action is a process that goes on within an organization to institute policy and change. Evaluation, decision making, and planning are a part of the continuing process as individuals and groups work on the subject.

The administrator's job is to get things done, but sometimes he doesn't know how -- the steps to take. The social action process shows how action takes place.

1. The social action process has four phases in program planning:
 - a. The initiation phase is the one in which an idea is born, tested, and accepted or rejected.
 - b. The legitimation phase involves getting approval of the idea from those in authority.
 - c. The organization and planning for action phase involves setting goals and objectives, a plan for enlisting local support, and getting action commitments.
 - d. The action phase contains the launching of the program and evaluation of its progress.
2. The diffusion process is important in the adoption of a program because it involves making an individual or a group aware, interested, decisive, and fulfilled.
3. Evaluation is not just an appraisal of the end result but of the progress of a project. It provides valuable information for future projects. It is a good control technique for the administrator.

Process of Change

The case study of "The Village Pump" by Afif Tannous was used to illustrate the elements in the process of change.

Notes by Alberto Valdes

Public Relations

Jon F. Greeneisen

Public relations -- any action which influences the public attitude or relationships toward you and your organization. The goal is to create a climate and environment in which an organization can function best.

We need to understand communications to be able to properly carry out public relations. Essential parts of communication are:

1. Need to know certain things about the people with whom we are communicating.
2. Classify audiences.
3. Determine message --what to get across.
4. Means (tools) -- radio, mail, press, posters, exhibits, signs, wire, photo.

Information Workshop

Lyman Noordhoff

The workshop covered:

1. Communications process.
2. Diffusion process.
3. Organization and structure

Exercises worked out by the group involved each person in these communication processes.

(Note: The one-week special communication's course which most participants included in their program gives a more detailed coverage of this subject.)

The diffusion process was illustrated with cases which showed the spread of information from source to receiver. The stages involved are: awareness, interest, evaluation, trial, and adoption.

A review of the information services of the U.S. Department of Agriculture showed the following:

- (a) Current information (press, radio, TV)
- (b) Visual (motion pictures, exhibits, photos)
- (c) Publications

Notes by Hassan Mgalla

Special Events

American Country Life Association

Members of the short course attended the Annual Meeting of the American Country Life Association. This seminar-type conference brings together leaders of farm organizations, agencies, and institutions serving in the town and country community. The meeting provided an excellent opportunity to observe the working relationships between these organizations in their joint concern for the welfare of the people in the community. The theme of the meeting was "Our Town and Country Society Looks at Itself."

Seminar in Executive Development

Several members of the short course were invited to spend an evening with the U. S. Department of Agriculture participants in the first of a series of "Seminars in Executive Development" carried out by the Department. The place of this type of training activity as a part of the total personnel development program of the Department provided an interesting "extra" for the group involved.

Credit Unions

A special session was included on credit unions -- their purpose, how they may be used, and how to establish them. This was done in response to the interests of the group. This finance cooperative is proving to be a most helpful mechanism in developing countries.

Seminar -- Follow-up

The purpose of the seminar was to help each participant think through his experience in the course and fix more firmly in his mind the principal points applicable to his situation. The outline for presentation covered the following:

1. What I plan to do to share or apply what I learned.
2. How does what I learn relate to my situation and problem?
3. What part of the problem will I attempt to solve -- What are some of the steps toward solution?
4. How I plan to do it (specific steps).

Follow-up included the following:

1. Discuss with supervisor aspects of organization to bring about improvement in effectiveness.
2. Set up training courses to up-grade personnel.
3. Submit broad report on this short course.
4. Help develop better organized courses in extension methods and in sociology in the curriculum of agricultural colleges.
5. Introduce a system of recognition (awards) in addition to promotion for good work.
6. Modify organization to provide for greater participation of local people.
7. Develop closer working relations with the university.
8. Share ideas with associates.
9. Continue to study.
10. Write articles for "Bulletin."
11. Plan short course for own staff.
12. Select a project and apply principles learned.
13. Propose reorganization.

Evaluation

The evaluation showed the course to be an outstanding success. It also brought out the necessity to do more than assign readings and present material to the participants. A process of involvement, that helps the person understand what he already knows about administration, to share with others, and to firm up concepts applicable to his situation is the key to effective teaching and learning. Most of all an environment was created which emphasized mutual respect and sharing and one which furthered the desire for learning.

Quotes from the sessions reflect the direction of thought and the atmosphere maintained during the course.

"If someone asked -- What have you learned in the course? I'd say, I've learned an approach to the solution of problems."

"You pay so much attention to the human factor -- Your understanding of what a human being is like leaves the most vivid impression."

"The prevailing administrative environment in any of the developing countries can be improved only by changing or improving the leadership and also by changing the attitudes of the government officials as well as the people through education. In short, democracy with good leadership, political stability and economic progress are the goals of the administrative environment."

"Before (the course) we did the work but didn't know the terms.....We see administrative matters in a new light.....We're having a good time working together."

"We can't copy a method or program from another country. It is necessary to see the motivating forces, the kind of people, the role of government, and the different environment in adapting ideas to the situation in your own country."

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